Weak effects of geolocators on small birds: a meta-analysis controlled for phylogeny and publication bias

3	Vojtěch Brlík ^{1,2} , Jaroslav Koleček ¹ , Malcolm Burgess ³ , Steffen Hahn ⁴ , Diana Humple ⁵ , Miloš Krist ⁶ , Janne
4	Ouwehand ⁷ , Emily L. Weiser ^{8,9} , Peter Adamík ^{6,10} , José A. Alves ^{11,12} , Debora Arlt ¹³ , Sanja Barišić ¹⁴ , Detlef
5	Becker ¹⁵ , Eduardo J. Belda ¹⁶ , Václav Beran ^{6,17,18} , Christiaan Both ⁷ , Susana P. Bravo ¹⁹ , Martins Briedis ⁴ ,
6	Bohumír Chutný ²⁰ , Davor Ćiković ¹⁴ , Nathan W. Cooper ²¹ , Joana S. Costa ¹¹ , Víctor R. Cueto ¹⁹ , Tamara
7	Emmenegger ⁴ , Kevin Fraser ²² , Olivier Gilg ^{23,24} , Marina Guerrero ²⁵ , Michael T. Hallworth ²⁶ , Chris
8	Hewson ²⁷ , Frédéric Jiguet ²⁸ , James A. Johnson ²⁹ , Tosha Kelly ³⁰ , Dmitry Kishkinev ^{31,32} , Michel Leconte ³³ ,
9	Terje Lislevand ³⁴ , Simeon Lisovski ⁴ , Cosme López ³⁵ , Kent P. McFarland ³⁶ , Peter P. Marra ²⁶ , Steven M.
10	Matsuoka ^{29,37} , Piotr Matyjasiak ³⁸ , Christoph M. Meier ⁴ , Benjamin Metzger ³⁹ , Juan S. Monrós ⁴⁰ , Roland
11	Neumann ⁴¹ , Amy Newman ⁴² , Ryan Norris ⁴² , Tomas Pärt ¹³ , Václav Pavel ^{6,43} , Noah Perlut ⁴⁴ , Markus Piha ⁴⁵ ,
12	Jeroen Reneerkens ⁷ , Christopher C. Rimmer ³⁶ , Amélie Roberto-Charron ²² , Chiara Scandolara ⁴ , Natalia
13	Sokolova ^{46,47} , Makiko Takenaka ⁴⁸ , Dirk Tolkmitt ⁴⁹ , Herman van Oosten ^{50,51} , Arndt H. J. Wellbrock ⁵² , Hazel
14	Wheeler ⁵³ , Jan van der Winden ⁵⁴ , Klaudia Witte ⁵² , Brad Woodworth ⁵⁵ , Petr Procházka ¹
15	
16	Author for correspondence: Vojtěch Brlík, The Czech Academy of Sciences, Institute of Vertebrate
17	Biology, Květná 8, CZ-603 65 Brno, Czech Republic. E-mail: vojtech.brlik@gmail.com
18	
19	Affiliations
20	¹ The Czech Academy of Sciences, Institute of Vertebrate Biology, Květná 8, 603 65 Brno, Czech Republic
21	² Department of Ecology Ecculty of Science, Charles University in Prague, Viničná 7, 139,44 Prague 2

² Department of Ecology, Faculty of Science, Charles University in Prague, Viničná 7, 128 44 Prague 2,

22 Czech Republic

- ³ Royal Society for the Protection of Birds Centre for Conservation Science, The Lodge, Sandy, SG19
- 24 2DL Beds, UK
- ⁴ Bird Migration Department, Swiss Ornithological Institute, Seerose 1, 6204 Sempach, Switzerland
- ⁵ Point Blue Conservation Science, 3820 Cypress Drive 11, Petaluma, California 94954, USA
- ⁶ Department of Zoology, Faculty of Science, Palacký University, tř. 17. listopadu 50, 771 46 Olomouc,

28 Czech Republic

- ⁷Conservation Ecology Group, Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences, University of
- 30 Groningen, Nijenborgh 7, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands
- ⁸ Kansas State University, Division of Biology, 116 Ackert Hall, Manhattan, Kansas 66506, USA
- ⁹U.S. Geological Survey, Upper Midwest Environmental Sciences Center, 2630 Fanta Reed Rd, La Crosse,
- 33 Wisconsin 54603, USA
- ¹⁰ Museum of Natural History, nám. Republiky 5, 771 73 Olomouc, Czech Republic
- ¹¹ Department of Biology & Centre for Environmental and Marine Studies, University of Aveiro, Campus
- 36 Universitário de Santiago, 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal
- 37 ¹² University of Iceland, South Iceland Research Centre, Lindarbraut 4, IS-840 Laugarvatn, Iceland
- ¹³ Department of Ecology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, PO Box 7044, 75007 Uppsala,
- 39 Sweden
- 40 ¹⁴ Institute of Ornithology, Croatian Academy of Sciences and Arts, Gundulićeva 24, 10000 Zagreb,
- 41 Croatia
- 42 ¹⁵ Museum Heineanum, Domplatz 36, 38820 Halberstadt, Germany

- 43 ¹⁶ Universitat Politècnica de València, C/ Paranimfo, 1, 46730 Gandia, Valencia, Spain
- 44 ¹⁷ Municipal Museum of Ústí nad Labem, Masarykova 1000/3, 40001 Ústí nad Labem, Czech Republic
- 45 ¹⁸ ALKA Wildlife o.p.s., Lidéřovice 62, 38001 Dačice, Czech Republic
- 46 ¹⁹ CIEMEP, CONICET/UNPSJB, Roca 780, Esquel, CP 9200, Chubut, Argentina
- 47 ²⁰ Malinová 1650/27, 10600 Prague 10, Czech Republic
- 48 ²¹ Migratory Bird Center, Smithsonian Conservation Biology Institute, National Zoological Park, PO Box
- 49 37012 MRC 5503, Washington, D.C. 20013, USA
- 50 ²² Avian Behaviour and Conservation Lab, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Manitoba, 50
- 51 Sifton Road, Winnipeg, Manitoba R3T 2N2, Canada
- ²³ UMR 6249 Chrono-environnement, Université de Bourgogne Franche-Comté, 16 route de Gray, 25000
- 53 Besançon, France
- ²⁴ Groupe de recherche en Ecologie Arctique, 16 rue de Vernot, 21440 Francheville, France
- ²⁵ Servicio de Jardines, Bosques y Huertas, Patronato de la Alhambra y el Generalife.C/ Real de la
- 56 Alhambra, 18009 Granada, Spain
- ²⁶ Migratory Bird Center Smithsonian Conservation Biology Institute, National Zoological Park,
- 58 Washington DC 20013, USA
- ²⁷ British Trust for Ornithology, The Nunnery, Thetford, Norfolk IP24 2PU, UK
- 60 ²⁸ UMR7204 CESCO, MNHN-CNRS-Sorbonne Université, CP135, 43 Rue Buffon, 75005 Paris, France
- 61 ²⁹ U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Migratory Bird Management, 1011 East Tudor Road, Anchorage, Alaska
- 62 99503, USA

- ³⁰ Advanced Facility for Avian Research, Western University, 32 Wellington Dr, N6G 4W4, London,
- 64 Ontario, Canada
- ³¹ School of Natural Sciences, Bangor University, Deiniol Road, Bangor, LL57 2UW, Gwynedd, UK
- ³² Biological station Rybachy, Zoological Institute of Russian Academy of Sciences, Rybachy, Kaliningrad
- 67 region 238535, Russia
- 68 ³³ Quartier du Caü, F-64260 Arudy, France
- ³⁴ University Museum of Bergen, Department of Natural History, University of Bergen, PO Box 7800,
- 70 5020 Bergen, Norway
- ³⁵ Department of Zoology, Faculty of Biology, Green Building, Avenue Reina Mercedes, 41012 Seville,
- 72 Spain
- 73 ³⁶ Vermont Center for Ecostudies, PO Box 420, Norwich, 05055 Vermont, USA
- ³⁷ U.S. Geological Survey Alaska Science Center, 4210 University Drive, Anchorage, Alaska 99508, USA
- ³⁸ Department of Evolutionary Biology, Faculty of Biology and Environmental Sciences, Cardinal Stefan
- 76 Wyszyński University in Warsaw, Wóycickiego 1/3, PL-01-938 Warsaw, Poland
- ³⁹ Rua da Esperanca 43/3D, 1200-655 Lisbon, Portugal
- ⁴⁰ Cavanilles Institute of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology, University of Valencia, C/ Catedrático José
- 79 Beltrán 2, E-46980 Paterna, València, Spain
- 80 ⁴¹ Kritzmower Weg 1, 18198 Stäbelow, Germany
- ⁴² Department of Integrative Biology, University of Guelph, 50 Stone Rd E, Guelph, ON N1G 2W1, Canada

- ⁴³ Centre for Polar Ecology, University of South Bohemia, Branišovská 31, 370 05 České Budějovice,
- 83 Czech Republic
- ⁴⁴ University of New England, Department of Environmental Studies, 11 Hills Beach Rd, Biddeford,
- 85 Maine, USA
- ⁴⁵ Finnish Museum of Natural History LUOMUS, University of Helsinki, PO Box 17, 00014 Helsinki, Finland
- ⁴⁶ Arctic Research Station of Institute of Plant and Animal Ecology, Ural Branch Russian Academy of
- 88 Sciences, Zelenaya Gorka Str. 21, 629400 Labytnangi, Russia
- ⁴⁷ Arctic Research Center of Yamal-Nenets Autonomous District, Respublika str. 73, 629008 Salekhard,
- 90 Russia
- ⁴⁸ Tokai University Sapporo Campus, Minamisawa 5-1-1-1, Minami-ku, Sapporo, Hokkaido 005-8601,
- 92 Japan
- 93 ⁴⁹ Menckestraße 34, 04155 Leipzig, Germany
- ⁵⁰ Oenanthe Ecologie, Hollandseweg 42, 6706 KR Wageningen, The Netherlands
- ⁵¹ Institute for Water and Wetland Research, Animal Ecology, Physiology & Experimental Plant Ecology,
- 96 Radboud University, PO Box 9100, 6500 GL Nijmegen, The Netherlands
- 97 ⁵² Institute of Biology, Department of Chemistry Biology, Faculty of Science and Technology, University
- 98 of Siegen, Adolf-Reichwein-Str. 2, 57076 Siegen, Germany
- ⁵³ Wildlife Preservation Canada, 5420 Highway 6 North, Guelph, Ontario N1H 6J2, Canada
- 100 ⁵⁴ Ecology Research & Consultancy, Dantelaan 115, 3533 VC Utrecht, The Netherlands
- 101 ⁵⁵ School of Biological Sciences, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

103	ORCID
104	Vojtěch Brlík: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7902-8123
105	Jaroslav Koleček: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1069-6593
106	Malcolm Burgess: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1288-1231
107	Steffen Hahn: https://orcid.org/ 0000-0002-4924-495X
108	Miloš Krist: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6183-686X
109	Janne Ouwehand: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2573-6287
110	Emily L. Weiser: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1598-659X
111	Peter Adamík: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1566-1234
112	José A. Alves: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7182-0936
113	Debora Arlt: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0874-4250
114	Sanja Barišić: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3472-3285
115	Eduardo J. Belda: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1995-1271
116	Christiaan Both: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7099-9831
117	Martins Briedis: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9434-9056
118	Davor Ćiković: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3234-0574
119	Joana S. Costa: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1532-8936
420	

120 Tamara Emmenegger: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2839-6129

- 121 Olivier Gilg: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9083-4492
- 122 Chris Hewson: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8493-5203
- 123 Frédéric Jiguet: orcid.org/0000-0002-0606-7332
- 124 Dmitry Kishkinev: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2619-1197
- 125 Terje Lislevand: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1281-7061
- 126 Piotr Matyjasiak: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0384-2935
- 127 Kent McFarland: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7809-5503
- 128 Christoph M. Meier: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9584-2339
- 129 Tomas Pärt: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7388-6672
- 130 Markus Piha: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8482-6162
- 131 Jeroen Reneerkens: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0674-8143
- 132 Natalia Sokolova: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6692-4375
- 133 Arndt H. J. Wellbrock: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9929-7091
- 134 Klaudia Witte: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2812-9936
- 135 Petr Procházka: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9385-4547
- 136
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141 Abstract

142	1.	Currently, the deployment of tracking devices is one of the most frequently used approaches to
143		study movement ecology of birds. Recent miniaturisation of light-level geolocators enabled
144		studying small bird species whose migratory patterns were widely unknown. However,
145		geolocators may reduce vital rates in tagged birds and may bias obtained movement data.
146	2.	There is a need for a thorough assessment of the potential tag effects on small birds, as previous
147		meta-analyses did not evaluate unpublished data and impact of multiple life-history traits,
148		focused mainly on large species and the number of published studies tagging small birds has
149		increased substantially.
150	3.	We quantitatively reviewed 549 records extracted from 74 published and 48 unpublished studies
151		on over 7,800 tagged and 17,800 control individuals to examine the effects of geolocator tagging
152		on small bird species (body mass <100 g). We calculated the effect of tagging on apparent
153		survival, condition, phenology and breeding performance and identified the most important
154		predictors of the magnitude of effect sizes.
155	4.	Even though the effects were not statistically significant in phylogenetically controlled models, we
156		found a weak negative impact of geolocators on apparent survival. The negative effect on
157		apparent survival was stronger with increasing relative load of the device and with geolocators
158		attached using elastic harnesses. Moreover, tagging effects were stronger in smaller species.
159	5.	In conclusion, we found a weak effect on apparent survival of tagged birds and managed to
160		pinpoint key aspects and drivers of tagging effects. We provide recommendations for establishing
161		matched control group for proper effect size assessment in future studies and outline various
162		aspects of tagging that need further investigation. Finally, our results encourage further use of

163 geolocators on small bird species but the ethical aspects and scientific benefits should always be 164 considered. 165 166 Keywords: condition, migration, phenology, reproduction, return rate, survival, tracking device, tag 167 effect 168 169 Introduction 170 Tracking devices have brought undisputed insights into the ecology of birds. Use of these tags has 171 enabled researchers to gather valuable information about the timing of life events across annual cycles, 172 the year-round geographic distribution of populations and other important ecological patterns in many 173 species whose movement ecology was widely unknown (e.g. Patchett, Finch, & Cresswell, 2018; Stanley, 174 MacPherson, Fraser, McKinnon, & Stutchbury, 2012; Weimerskirch et al., 2002). A significant proportion 175 of recently published tracking studies use light-level geolocators on small bird species (body mass up to

176 100 g; Bridge et al., 2013; McKinnon & Love, 2018); however, the increasing use of these tags on small

177 birds raises questions about ethics of tagging and how representative the behaviour of tagged

178 individuals is (Jewell, 2013; Wilson & McMahon, 2006).

Studies using tracking devices such as archival light-level geolocators (hereafter 'geolocators')
frequently report the effect of tagging. The published results on the effects of geolocator tagging are
equivocal: some found reduced apparent survival, breeding success and parental care (Arlt, Low, & Pärt,
2013; Pakanen, Rönkä, Thomson, & Koivula, 2015; Scandolara et al., 2014; Weiser et al., 2016) while
others report no obvious effects (Bell, Harouchi, Hewson, & Burgess, 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015;
Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk, Souchay, Jenni-Eiermann, Bauer, & Schaub, 2015). Recent meta-analyses

185 evaluating the effects of geolocators (Costantini & Møller, 2013) and other tracking devices (Barron, 186 Brawn, & Weatherhead, 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) showed slightly negative effects on apparent survival, 187 breeding success and parental care. These studies also discussed relative load as an aspect affecting the 188 tagged birds (Costantini & Møller, 2013), or suggested multiple threshold values of relative load on birds 189 (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018). However, these studies involved mainly large bird species 190 where the same additional relative load will more negatively affect surplus power and thus the flight 191 performance than in smaller species (Caccamise & Hedin, 1985). Moreover, previous studies did not 192 control for the effect of small-sample studies, or phylogenetic non-independence and its uncertainty. 193 There is thus a lack of systematic and complex evaluation of geolocator effects on small birds including 194 species' life-history and ecological traits, geolocator design, and type of attachment.

195 Almost all prior meta-analyses reporting effects of tagging relied only on published sources and 196 could thus be affected by publication bias (Koricheva, Gurevitch, & Mengersen, 2013), as omitting 197 unpublished sources in meta-analyses may obscure the result (see e.g. Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). The 198 main source of publication bias in movement ecology could be a lower probability of publishing studies based on a small sample size, including studies where no or only few tagged birds were successfully 199 200 recovered due to a strong tagging effect. Additionally, geolocator effects most frequently rely on 201 comparisons between tagged and control birds and a biased choice of control individuals may directly 202 lead to the misestimation of the tagging effect sizes. The bias in the control groups can be due to 203 selection of smaller birds, birds being caught in different spatio-temporal conditions, including non-204 territorial individuals, or different effort put into recapturing control and tagged individuals.

The number of studies tagging small birds is rapidly increasing each year even though our understanding of tag effects is incomplete. In this study, we evaluated the effects of tagging on apparent survival, condition, phenology, and breeding performance for small bird species (<100 g) in a robust dataset of both published and unpublished studies to minimize the impact of publication bias.

209	Moreover, we assess whether the tagging effects are related to species' ecological and life-history traits,
210	type of control treatment as well as geolocator and attachment designs. We build on the most recent
211	advances in meta-analytical statistical modelling to get unbiased estimates of the geolocator
212	deployment effects controlled for phylogenetic non-independence and its uncertainty (Doncaster &
213	Spake, 2017; Guillerme & Healy 2017; Hadfield, 2010; Viechtbauer, 2010).
214	
215	Predictions
216	i) Geolocators will negatively affect apparent survival, condition, phenology and breeding
217	performance of small birds.
218	ii) Negative effects will be stronger in unpublished studies than in published studies.
219	iii) Deleterious effects will be most prominent in studies establishing matched control groups compared
220	to studies with potentially-biased control groups.
221	iv) Geolocators which constitute a higher relative load will imply stronger negative effects.
222	v) Geolocators with a longer light stalk/pipe will cause stronger negative effects because of increased
223	drag in flight and thus increased energetic expenditure (Bowlin et al., 2010; Pennycuick, Fast,
224	Ballerstädt, & Rattenborg, 2012). These effects will be stronger in aerial foragers than in other
225	foraging guilds (Costantini & Møller, 2013).
226	vi) Non-elastic harnesses will cause stronger negative effects than elastic harnesses, which better
227	adjust to intra-annual body mass changes and avoid flight restriction (Blackburn et al., 2016).
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229	

231 Material and Methods

232 Data search

233	We conducted a comprehensive search for both published and unpublished studies deploying
234	geolocators on bird species with body mass up to 100 g. We searched the Web of Science Core
235	Collection (search terms: TS = (geoloc* AND (bird* OR avian OR migra*) OR geologg*)) and Scopus
236	databases (search terms: TITLE-ABS-KEY (geoloc* AND (bird* OR migra*) OR geologg*)), to find
237	published studies listed to 18 February 2018. Moreover, we searched reference lists of studies using
238	geolocators on small birds and included studies from previous comparative studies (Bridge et al., 2013;
239	Costantini & Møller, 2013; Weiser et al., 2016). In order to obtain information from unpublished studies,
240	we inquired geolocator producers and the Migrant Landbird Study Group to disseminate our request for
241	unpublished study details among their customers and members, respectively. In addition, we asked the
242	corresponding authors of the published studies to share any unpublished data. The major geolocator
243	producers – Biotrack, Lotek, Migrate Technology and the Swiss Ornithological Institute – sent our
244	request to their customers. To find whether the originally unpublished studies were published over the
245	course of this study, we inspected their status on 1 December 2018. The entire process of search and
246	selection of studies and records (described below) is presented in a flow-chart (Fig. S1).
247	Inclusion criteria; additional data requesting
248	We included studies that met the following criteria:
249	1. The study reported response variables (e.g. return rates, body masses) necessary for effect size
250	calculation.
251	2. The study included a central group of birds alongside the geologator tagged individuals or reported

251 2. The study included a control group of birds alongside the geolocator-tagged individuals or reported
 a pairwise comparison of tagged birds during geolocator deployment and recovery.

3. As a control group, the study considered birds marked on the same site, of the same sex and age

class without any indication of a difference in recapture effort between tagged and control groups.

4. For pairwise comparisons, the study presented correlation coefficients or raw data.

5. The variable of interest was presented outside the interaction with another variable.

257 In order to obtain robust and unbiased results, we asked the corresponding authors for missing data or

clarification when the criteria were not met or when it was not clear whether the study complied with

the criteria (70% response rate [n = 115]). In addition, we excluded birds that had lost geolocators

260 before subsequent recapture as we did not know when the bird lost the geolocator, and excluded all

261 individuals tagged repeatedly over years because of possible inter-annual carry-over effects of the

262 devices. VBr assessed all studies for eligibility and extracted data, the final dataset was cross-checked by

JK and PP. A list of all published studies included in the meta-analysis is provided in the Published Data
Sources section.

265 Trait categories; effect size calculation; explanatory variables

266 We divided all collected data into four trait categories: apparent survival, condition, phenology and 267 breeding performance based on the response variables reported (e.g. inter-annual recapture rates, body 268 mass changes, arrival dates, or clutch sizes; Table S2). These categories represent the main traits 269 possibly affected in the geolocator-tagged individuals. Subsequently, analyses were run separately for 270 each trait category. We calculated the effect sizes for groups of tagged birds from the same study site 271 and year of attachment, of the same sex (if applicable) and specific geolocator and attachment type 272 accompanied with the corresponding control groups. For simplicity, we call these units records 273 throughout the text. For each record, we extracted a contingency table with the treatment arm 274 continuity correction (Schwarzer, Carpenter, & Rücker, 2014) or mean, variance, and sample size, to 275 calculate the unbiased standardised mean difference – Hedges' q (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, &

276Rothstein, 2009) – and its variance with correction for the effect of small sample sizes (Doncaster &277Spake, 2018). We used the equation from Sweeting et al. (2004) to calculate variance in pairwise278comparisons. When raw data were not provided, we used the reported test statistics (F, t or χ^2) and279sample sizes to calculate the effect size using the R package compute.es (Del Re 2013). Besides the280effect size measures, we extracted additional variables of potential interest – ecological and life-history281traits per species, methodological aspects of the study, geolocator and attachment designs and harness282material elasticity (Table 1).

283 Accounting for dependency

284 We accounted for data non-independence on several levels. When multiple records shared one control 285 group (e.g. several geolocator types and attachment designs used in one year), we split the sample size 286 in the shared control group by the number of records to avoid a false increase in record precision. When 287 multiple measures were available for the same individuals, we randomly chose one effect size measure 288 in each trait category (n = 8). If the study provided both recapture and re-encounter rates, we chose the 289 re-encounter rate as a more objective measure of apparent survival. Re-encounters included captures 290 and observations of tagged birds and thus the bias towards the tagged birds caused by the potentially 291 higher recapture effort to retrieve the geolocators should be lower. Finally, we accounted for 292 phylogenetic non-independence between the species and the uncertainty of these relationships using 293 100 phylogenetic trees (Jetz, Thomas, Joy, Hartmann, & Mooers, 2012) downloaded from the 294 BirdTree.org (www.birdtree.org) using the backbone of Hackett et al. (2008). Moreover, we used the 295 random intercepts of species and study sites in all models, the latter to account for possible site-specific 296 differences (such as different netting effort or other field methods used by particular research teams).

297 Overall effect sizes and heterogeneity

298 We calculated the overall effect size for each trait category from all available records using meta-299 analytical null models. We employed the MCMCqImm function from the MCMCgImm package (Hadfield, 300 2010) to estimate overall effect sizes not controlled for phylogeny (model 1, Table S3). We then used the 301 mulTree function from the mulTree package (Guillerme & Healy, 2017) to automatically fit a 302 MCMCgImm model on each phylogenetic tree and summarized the results from all these models to 303 obtain phylogenetically controlled overall effect size estimates (model 2, Table S3). We used weakly 304 informative inverse-Gamma priors (V = 1, nu = 0.002) in all models. All fitted MCMCglmm models 305 converged and Gelman-Rubin statistic was always <1.1 for all parameters. As our data contained many 306 effect sizes based on small sample sizes, which could lead to a biased estimate of the overall effect size 307 variance, all effect sizes were weighted by their mean-adjusted sampling variance (Doncaster & Spake, 308 2018). We considered effect sizes (Hedge's q) of 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 weak, moderate and large effects, 309 respectively. Moreover, we calculated the amount of between-study heterogeneity in all null models 310 using the equation described in Nakagawa and Santos (2012). Phylogenetic heritability (H²) expressing 311 the phylogenetic signal was estimated as the ratio of phylogenetic variance ($\sigma^2_{phylogeny}$) against the sum of phylogenetic and species variance ($\sigma^2_{species}$) from the models (Table S3; Hadfield & Nakagawa, 2010): 312

313 $H^2 = \sigma^2_{phylogeny} / (\sigma^2_{phylogeny} + \sigma^2_{species})$

314 *Multivariate meta-analysis*

To unveil the most important dependencies of the geolocator effects, we calculated three types of multivariate models: a full trait model (model 3), an ecological model (model 4) and models of publication bias (model 5, Table S3). In the full trait model, we used methodological, species, geolocator specification and attachment variables (Table 1) to estimate their impact on apparent survival (model 3). We did not compare the tagging effects of different attachment types due to their use in specific groups of species (e.g. the leg-flagged attachment in shorebirds or the full-body harnesses in nightjars and

321 swifts only). Prior to fitting the ecological model, we employed a principal component analysis of the 322 inter-correlated log continuous life-history traits and extracted the two most important ordination axes 323 - PC1 and PC2 (Table 1). The PC1 explained 54.4% of the variability and expressed a gradient of species 324 characterised mainly by increasing body mass, egg mass and clutch mass (Fig. S4). The PC2 explained 325 18.7% of variance and was characterised mainly by increasing clutch sizes, number of broods and 326 decreasing migration distances (Fig. S4). These axes together with the categorical ecological traits (Table 327 1) were then entered into the ecological model to estimate their effect on apparent survival (model 4). 328 Finally, we tested for differences in effect sizes between published and unpublished results in each trait 329 category using all available records (model 5). In these models, we employed the *rma.mv* function from 330 the R package metafor (Viechtbauer, 2010) weighted by the mean-adjusted sampling error (Doncaster & 331 Spake, 2018). Continuous predictors were scaled and centred. None of the model residuals violated the 332 assumptions of normal distribution. Because the phylogenetic relatedness of the species explained only 333 a small amount of variation and the phylogenetic relatedness correlates with the life-history and 334 ecological traits, we did not control for phylogeny in the multivariate models but incorporated the 335 random intercepts of species and study site. We calculated R² for the full trait and ecological models 336 using the residual between-study variability ($\tau^2_{residual}$) and the total between-study variability (τ^2_{total}) 337 according to the equation (López-López, Marín-Martínez, Sánchez-Meca, Van den Noortgate, & 338 Viechtbauer, 2014):

339 $R^2 = (1 - \tau^2_{residual} / \tau^2_{total}) \times 100$

340 Publication bias; body mass manipulation

We used funnel plots to visually check for potential asymmetry caused by publication bias in each trait category (Fig. S5). To quantify the level of asymmetry in each trait category, we applied the Egger's regression tests of the meta-analytical residuals from all null models of the trait categories (calculated using the *rma.mv* function) against effect size precision (1 / mean-adjusted standard error; Nakagawa &
Santos, 2012). An intercept significantly differing from zero suggests the presence of publication bias. In
order to find differences in log body mass between the tagged and control individuals during the tagging
and marking, we applied a linear mixed-effect model with species and study site as a random intercept
weighted by the sample sizes. We considered all effect sizes significant when the 95% credible interval
(Crl; using *MCMCglmm* function) or confidence interval (Cl; using *rma.mv* function) did not overlap zero.
All analyses were conducted in R version 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016).

351

352 Results

We assessed 854 records for eligibility of effect size calculation and excluded 36% of these records mainly due to a missing control group (59% of ineligible records) or missing essential values for effect size calculation (21%; Fig. S1). Finally, a total of 122 studies containing 549 effect sizes were included in our meta-analysis wherein 35% effect sizes originated from unpublished sources (Table 2). The vast majority of the analysed effect sizes originated from Europe or North America (94%; Fig. S6) and the data contained information about 7,829 tagged and 17,834 control individuals of 69 species from 27 families and 7 orders (Table S7).

We found a weak overall negative effect (Hedges' g: -0.2; 95% CrI -0.29, -0.11; P <0.001) only on apparent survival in the model not controlled for phylogeny (model 1). Although we found no statistically significant overall tagging effects in any trait category when controlling for phylogenetic relatedness, the estimates were similar to those not controlled for phylogeny (model 2, Fig. 1). The phylogenetic signal (H² = 59%) was statistically significant only for apparent survival, suggesting that closely related species have more similar response to tagging than less related species, but the variances explained by phylogeny and species were very low for all models (Table S8).

367 The full trait model of apparent survival revealed that tagging effects were stronger with 368 increasing load on tagged individuals and that geolocators with elastic harnesses affected birds more 369 negatively than geolocators with non-elastic harnesses (Table 3, Fig. 2). However, we found no 370 statistically significant effect on apparent survival for control group type, sex, stalk length, foraging 371 strategy or the interaction between stalk length and foraging strategy (model 3, Table 3). The ecological 372 model suggested a relationship of apparent survival with the PC1, with negative effects being stronger 373 with decreasing body, egg and clutch mass (model 4, Table 3). The full trait model explained 21.1% and 374 the ecological model 11.8% of the between-study variance.

We did not find any evidence for publication bias in any of the trait categories, either visually in the funnel plots (Fig. S5), or using Egger's regression tests (Table 2). Moreover, there were no statistically significant differences in tagging effects between published and unpublished studies (model 5, Table S9). The geolocator-tagged birds were on average 3.8% heavier than control individuals prior to the geolocator deployment and marking (LMM: estimate 0.008 ± 0.003, *t* = 2.47, *P* = 0.014).

380

381 Discussion

Geolocator deployment has a potential to reduce a bird's apparent survival, condition, breeding performance, or may delay events of the annual cycle leading to biases in movement data. By conducting a quantitative review of published studies deploying geolocators on small bird species and incorporating unpublished data, we revealed only a weak overall effect of geolocators on apparent survival of tagged birds while we found no clear overall effect on condition, phenology and breeding performance. Moreover, we found no statistically significant effects of tagging in any of trait categories when accounting for phylogenetic relationships. Tagging effects on apparent survival were stronger with a higher relative load, when the geolocators were attached with elastic harnesses and in small-bodiedspecies.

391 *Overall tag effects*

392 A negative overall effect of geolocator tagging on apparent survival found in this study seems to be 393 prevalent across previous comparative studies of tagging effects (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018; 394 Costantini & Møller, 2013; Trefry, Diamond, & Jesson, 2012; Weiser et al., 2016). However, unlike 395 previous comparative (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) and primary studies (e.g. Adams et al., 396 2009; Arlt et al., 2013; Snijders et al., 2017), we found no overall negative effects of tagging on variables 397 associated with breeding performance in our analysis. We also did not find evidence for overall effects 398 of tagging on body condition and phenology, which was consistent with equivocal results of previous 399 studies: some found reduced body condition (Adams et al. 2009, Elliott et al., 2012) or delayed timing of 400 annual cycle events (Arlt et al., 2013, Scandolara et al., 2014), while others found no evidence for 401 tagging effects on these traits (Bell et al., 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et 402 al., 2015).

403 Tagged individuals that returned to the study site are potentially in better condition than the 404 tagged individuals that did not return – this potentially contributes to the weak tagging effects on 405 condition, phenology and breeding performance. However, the lack of effect we found on phenology 406 and breeding performance could also be an artefact of the small sample sizes, as collecting these data is 407 probably more challenging in small avian species, which are more difficult to re-sight and recapture and 408 have shorter life-spans than the relatively heavier species included in the previous studies. Similarly, 409 effects of tagging on condition could be underestimated in our analysis due to the initial differences we 410 found between the body mass of tagged and control birds. Additionally, the intra-annual body mass 411 changes could be biased in studies where timing of geolocator deployment and geolocator recovery

412 differs. Unfortunately, the timing of captures and recaptures was rarely reported and could not be 413 analysed in our study. Overall, the weak effects of tagging we found support several primary studies 414 (e.g. Bell et al., 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015), indicating that 415 geolocator tagging is both ethical and provides credible information on bird movements. On the other 416 hand, care should be taken as the tagging effect may be specific to populations or species. For example, 417 Weiser et al. (2016) found a negligible overall effect but significant reduction of return rates in the 418 smallest species in their meta-analysis. The negative effect of geolocators can also vary between years 419 (Bell et al., 2017, Scandolara et al., 2014), or be induced by occasional bad weather conditions (Snijders 420 et al., 2017), or food shortages (Saraux et al., 2011; Wilson et al., 2015).

421 Inferring unbiased overall effect sizes

We minimised publication bias in our estimates of overall effects by including substantial amount of unpublished results (192 records of 38 species) and contacting authors of published studies for additional data. Still, some of these studies might get published in the future despite the delay between our data collation and the final analysis. We did not find any evidence that tagging effects differed between published and unpublished studies, suggesting that the tagging effect may not be a critical consideration for publishing a study.

Moreover, we found no support for stronger tag effects in studies with matched control individuals compared to studies with less strict control treatments. However, this result is potentially confounded by the fact that tagged birds were on average larger and in potentially better condition than control birds, which would underestimate the negative effects of tagging. We thus suggest establishing carefully matched control groups in all future studies to enable a more reliable estimation of tagging effects. Such a control group should include: i) randomly selected individuals of the same species, sex and age class; ii) individuals caught at the same time of the season and year; iii) at the same time of the

day; iv) of similar size and condition as tagged individuals, and v) exclude non-territorial birds or
individuals passing through the site.

437 Influence of relative load and species' life-histories

438 Our results support the current evidence (Bodey et al., 2018; Weiser et al., 2016) for reduced apparent 439 survival in studies with a relatively higher tag load on treated individuals. Moreover, we found an 440 increasing negative effect in studies tagging smaller species with smaller eggs and clutch masses. The 441 lower body mass in these species is likely accompanied with a higher relative tag load due to technical 442 constraints of lower tag weights. Although recent miniaturisation has led to the development of smaller 443 tags, these tags have been predominantly applied to smaller species instead of reducing tag load in 444 larger species (Portugal & White, 2018). The various relative loads used without observed tagging effects 445 (e.g. Bell et al., 2017, Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015) indicate the absence of a generally 446 applicable rule for all small bird species (Schacter & Jones, 2017) and we thus recommend the use of 447 reasonably small tags despite potential disadvantages (e.g. reduced battery lifespan or light sensor 448 quality).

449 Harness material

450 Contrary to our prediction, we found higher apparent survival in birds tagged with harnesses made of 451 non-elastic materials. Non-elastic harnesses are usually individually adjusted on each individual, 452 whereas elastic harnesses are often prepared before attachment to fit the expected body size of the 453 tagged individuals according to allometric equations (e.g. Naef-Daenzer, 2007). As pre-sized elastic 454 harnesses cannot match perfectly the size of every captured individual, they may be in the end more 455 frequently tightly fitted as some researches might tend to tag larger individuals or avoid too loose 456 harnesses to prevent geolocator loss. Non-elastic harnesses may also be more frequently looser than 457 elastic harnesses as researchers try to reduce the possibility of non-elastic harness getting tight when

458 birds accumulate fat. Tight harnesses significantly reduced the return rates in whinchat (Saxicola 459 rubetra; Blackburn et al. 2016), and it may be difficult to register whether elastic harnesses are 460 restricting physical movement of birds when deploying tags. In contrast, non-elastic harnesses, which 461 are more commonly tailored according to the actual size, are often made sufficiently loose to account 462 for body mass changes of each individual. Prepared elastic harnesses are usually used to reduce the 463 handling time during the geolocator deployment (Streby et al. 2015) but this advantage may be 464 outweighed by the reduced apparent survival of geolocators with tied elastic harnesses. We thus 465 suggest to consider stress during geolocator deployment together with the potentially reduced apparent 466 survival and the risk of tag loss when choosing harness material.

467 Variables without statistically significant impact on tagging effect

468 Migratory distance did not affect the magnitude of the effect sizes, contrasting with some previous 469 findings (Bodey et al., 2018; Costantini & Møller, 2013). However, none of these studies used 470 population-specific distances travelled; instead, they used latitudinal spans between ranges of 471 occurrence (Costantini & Møller, 2013) or travelled distance categorised into three distances groups 472 (Bodey et al., 2018). These types of distance measurements could greatly affect the results especially in 473 species that migrate mainly in an east-west direction (Lislevand et al., 2015; Stach, Kullberg, Jakobsson, 474 Ström, & Fransson, 2016) or in species whose populations largely differ in their travel distances (Bairlein 475 et al., 2012; Schmaljohann, Buchmann, Fox, & Bairlein, 2012). Moreover, light-level geolocators were 476 most frequently deployed to the long-distance migrants in our study and the result can be thus 477 applicable to these species only.

Additionally, we found no overall effect of species' foraging strategy, contrary to the strong
overall negative effect found for aerial foraging species (Costantini and Møller 2013). Despite the tag
shape altering the drag and thus energy expenditure during flight (Bowlin et al., 2010; Pennycuick et al.,

481 2012), apparent survival tended to be better in individuals fitted with stalked geolocators and we found 482 no interaction between stalk length and foraging strategy on the tagging effect size. Geolocators with 483 longer stalks have been more frequently used in heavier birds with low relative load where the expected 484 tag effect is weak. Moreover, previous results of strong negative effects in aerial foragers led to a 485 preferential use of stalkless geolocators in these species and probably minimised the tagging effect in 486 this foraging guild (Morganti et al., 2018; Scandolara et al., 2015). However, the evidence for the 487 negative effects in non-aerial foragers is low as there is only one field study focusing on stalk length 488 effects on the return rates (Blackburn et al., 2016).

489 *Future considerations*

Future studies evaluating the use of geolocators on birds should focus on assessing inter-annual differences in tagging effects, effects of varying relative loads, different stalk lengths or different attachment methods to minimise the negative effects of tagging. We also suggest to focus on the impact of various movement strategies such as fattening and moulting schedules on the tagging effect. All future studies should carefully set matched controls and transparently report on tagging effects. Finally, our results encourage use of geolocators on small bird species but the ethical and scientific benefits should always be considered.

497

498 Authors' contributions

VBr, JK and PP conceived the idea and designed the methodology. VBr reviewed the literature and
collected data, JK and PP checked the data extracted for analysis. VBr and PP analysed the data. VBr led
the writing of the manuscript with significant contributions from JK and PP. MB, SH, DH, MK, JO and EW
contributed with unpublished data and their comments and suggestions significantly improved the
manuscript. PA, JA, DA, SB, DB, EB, VBe, CB, SB, MBr, BC, DC, NC, JC, VC, TE, KF, OG, MG, MH, CH, FJ, JJ,

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NS, MT, DT, HO, AW, HW, JW, KW and BW contributed unpublished data and critically revised the
manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

507

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525 Data accessibility

- 526 Data described in this article are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1886530 (Brlík et al.,
- 527 2018).

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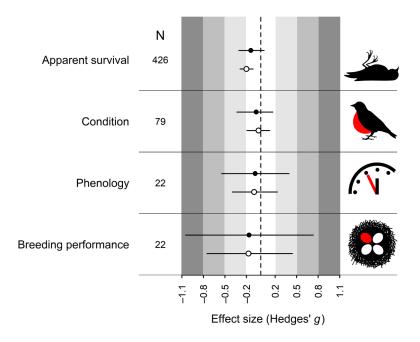
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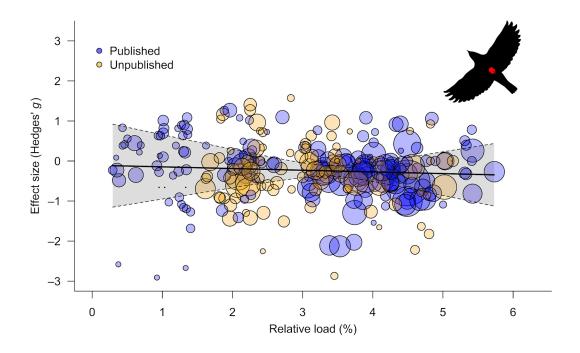
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Figure 1. Overall effects of geolocators in the four trait categories, circles give means, horizontal lines
represent 95% CrI. Filled symbols present the phylogenetically controlled overall effects, open symbols
give the value from null models not accounting for phylogeny. N presents the number of effect sizes
analysed. For the detailed description of the trait categories see Methods and Table S2.



- 936 Figure 2. Relationship between relative load and the effect of geolocator deployment on the apparent
- 937 survival of tagged birds. Size of the circles reflects the precision (1/mean-adjusted SE) of the effect sizes,
- 938 the shaded area and dashed lines depict the 95% CI of the regression.



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Table 1. Explanatory variables used in the multivariate meta-analysis of apparent survival extracted from
published and unpublished geolocator studies or from the literature. *N* presents the number of records
specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex,
and the specific geolocator and the attachment type accompanied with the corresponding control
groups.

Methodological aspect	Description	Ν
Published data	Published – data from published studies (for details see	303
	Methods), data from unpublished sources from years following	
	an already published study, or data initially collected as	
	unpublished but published by 31 August 2018	
	Unpublished – data from unpublished studies	123
Control group	Matched – birds handled in the exactly same way as geolocator-	102
	tagged birds except for geolocator deployment	
	Marked only – birds of the same sex, age, from the same year	324
	and study site or birds from the same site, from different years	
Species trait		
Foraging strategy ^{1,2}	Aerial forager	122
	Non-aerial forager	304
Sex	Males	195
	Females	120
Geolocator specification		
Relative load	% of geolocator mass (including the harness) of the body mass	418
	of the tagged birds	

Stalk/pipe length* Length (mm) of the stalk/pipe holding the light sensor or

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guiding the light towards the sensor (C	0 mm for stalkless models)
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Attachment specification	on	
Attachment type	Leg-loop harness	304
	Full-body harness	80
	Leg-flag attachment	42
Material elasticity*	Elastic – elastan, ethylpropylen, neoprene, rubber, silicone,	235
	silastic, or Stretch Magic	
	Non-elastic – cord, kevlar, nylon, plastic, polyester, or teflon	146
Ecological trait		
Life-histories	Great circle distance between geolocator deployment site and	426
	population-specific centroid of the non-breeding (or breeding)	
	range	
	Male body mass (g)	426
	Female body mass (g)	426
	Nest type – open/close	426
	Clutch size (number of eggs)	426
	Number of broods per year	426
	Dense habitat preference (species occurs especially in dense	426
	habitats e.g. reeds or scrub) – yes/no	
	Egg mass (g) – mean fresh mass ³	426
	Clutch mass (g) – egg mass × clutch size	426

946 * only used for harness attachments

947 ¹Cramp & Perrins, 1977–1994

948 ² Rodewald, 2015

949 ³ Schönwetter, 1960–1992

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Table 2. Number of unpublished effect sizes included in the analysis and Egger's regression tests of the

952 null model residuals against their precision to assess the presence of publication bias.

	Trait category	Unpublishe	ed (%)	Ε	gger's re	gressio	n	
	han category	Effect sizes	N	Intercept	t	SE	Р	
	Apparent survival	28.9	426	0.12	1.53	0.08	0.121	-
	Condition	63.3	79	-0.36	-1.70	0.21	0.088	
	Phenology	59.1	22	-0.26	-1.28	0.21	0.217	
	Breeding performance	27.3	22	-0.01	-0.01	0.61	0.993	
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Table 3. Summary of the full trait model (n = 281; model 3) and the ecological model (n = 426; model 4)
of the geolocator effects on apparent survival. Levels contrasted against the reference level are given in
parentheses.

Full trait model

Trait	Estimate	SE	Ζ	95% CI	Р
Intercept	-0.25	0.10	-2.59	(-0.44; -0.06)	0.010
Published (published)	0.14	0.10	1.39	(-0.06; 0.34)	0.164
Control type (matched)	-0.05	0.09	-0.61	(-0.23; 0.12)	0.542
Foraging strategy (aerial)	-0.09	0.14	-0.61	(–0.36; 0.19)	0.540
Sex (males)	-0.07	0.05	-1.30	(-0.17; 0.03)	0.192
Relative load	-0.12	0.05	-2.36	(-0.23; -0.02)	0.018
Stalk/pipe length	0.07	0.04	1.77	(-0.01; 0.15)	0.077
Material elasticity (non-elastic)	0.19	0.08	2.21	(0.03; 0.35)	0.026
Foraging strategy (aerial) × stalk length	-0.10	0.07	-1.40	(–0.25; 0.04)	0.161
Ecological model					
Trait	Estimate	SE	Ζ	95% CI	Р
Intercept	-0.26	0.08	-3.20	(-0.42; -0.10)	0.001
PC1	0.06	0.03	2.32	(0.01; 0.11)	0.026
PC2	0.02	0.03	0.47	(–0.05; 0.08)	0.638
Dense habitat (yes)	0.03	0.13	0.21	(–0.22; 0.27)	0.834
Nest type (open)	0.14	0.11	1.27	(–0.08; 0.36)	0.205